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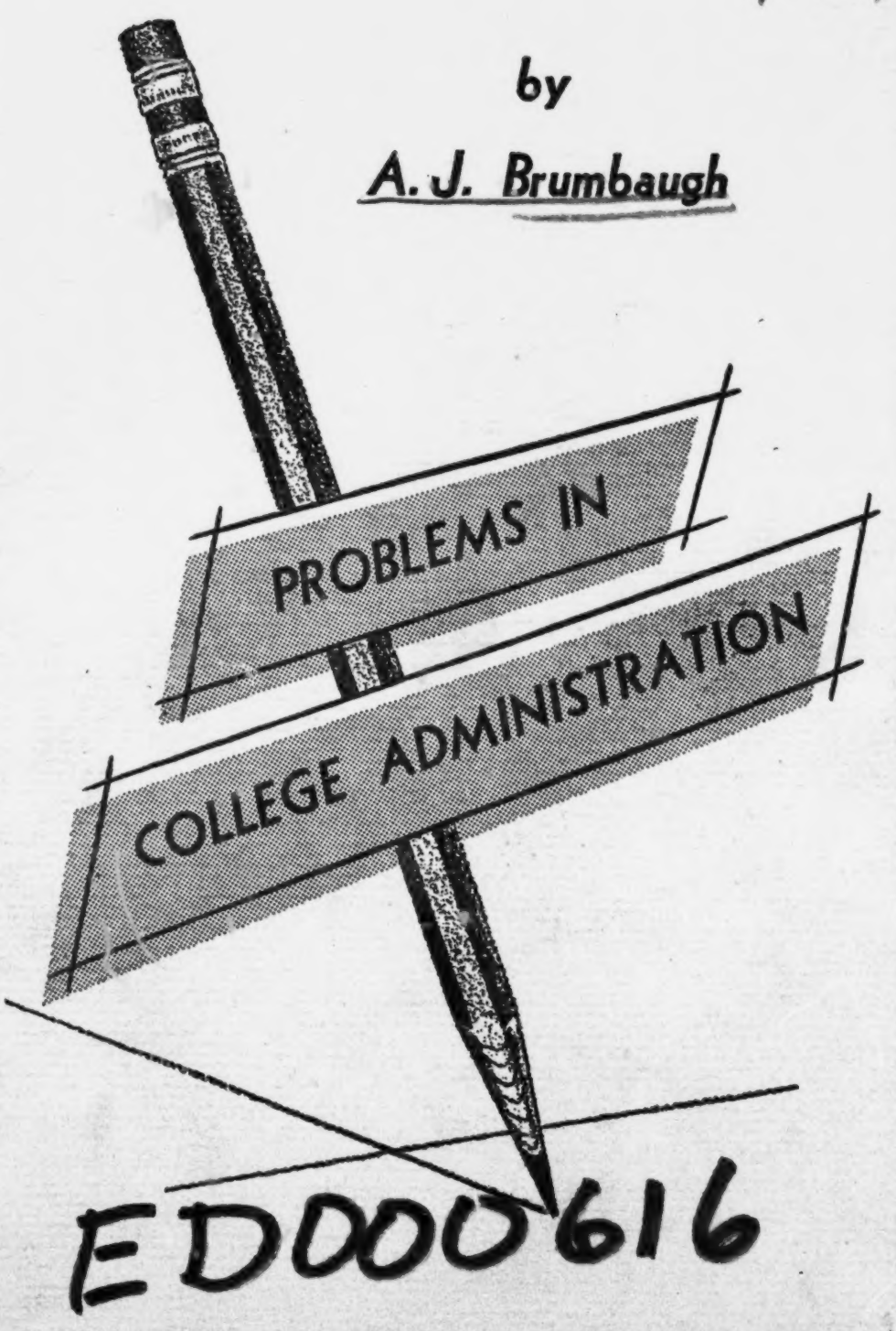

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Number 1

Problems in College Administration

By

A. J. BRUMBAUGH

1956

Division of Educational Institutions

BOARD OF EDUCATION, THE METHODIST CHURCH

NASHVILLE TENNESSEE

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Preface

THIS BOOK represents the substance of three lectures presented by Dr. A. J. Brumbaugh before the Eleventh Annual Institute on Higher Education in Nashville, July, 1955. The "problems" discussed here are the perennial issues of educational administration. That they are treated with insight and imagination every college administrator will recognize at once.

Dr. Brumbaugh has had a long record of service to higher education. Twice he has been a college president. He has served as dean of students and dean of the College of Arts and Sciences at the University of Chicago, as vice-president of the American Council on Education, and now as director of studies for the Southern Regional Education Board. Dr. Brumbaugh was also for a considerable time secretary of the Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Problems in College Administration is the first in a new series of studies on higher education projected by the Division of Educational Institutions of the Methodist Board of Education.

John O. Gross
Myron F. Wicke
Board of Education
of The Methodist Church

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Introduction

PROBLEMS OF administration in higher education may be defined as perplexing situations, the solution to which is not immediately apparent. To find a solution to an administrative problem or a perplexing situation of this type requires first of all a clear conception of what the problem is. Defining the problem is not always as easy as it sounds, because we are frequently inclined to confuse symptoms with the situation. It requires in the second place the marshaling of pertinent facts related to the problem; in the third place, there is required the formulation of a hypothesis or tentative solution to the problem; and then the verification of this tentative solution by trying it out or by getting a judgment of others concerning it.

What I outline here all too briefly is that the approach to problems of administration in higher education must be objective, logical, analytical. But in higher education the problems that most frequently arise involve human relations in some form: conflicts of opinion, conflicts of authority, conflicts of beliefs. The situations that give rise to the problems, then, often precipitate the expression of pent-up feelings that have been built up over a period of time. Unfortunately, problems of college administration may have such strong emotional overtones that a rational, analytical approach of the kind that I have suggested, is extremely difficult. This makes it imperative to establish lines of authority and to allocate responsibility so clearly that the number of administrative problems will be kept at a minimum.

In pursuit of this point of view, one might begin by identifying and classifying them in consideration of how they arise and

how they might have been avoided or solved. This would be essentially the case approach.

Another approach would be to consider the role of the persons who are basically responsible for administering the purposes and programs of an institution, and for the effectiveness with which the institution fulfills its purposes; then to consider the problems that arise within the several spheres of administrative operation.

Another approach might be to establish basic concepts or principles of administration, then to relate these principles to some of the recurring problems of administration. This is a particularly difficult approach because, to the best of my knowledge, there is no generally accepted body of principles of college administration. Moreover, the problems that arise frequently involve so many factors that their relationship to pertinent principles becomes quite involved, if not confused.

At the risk of confusion, I have attempted to combine the last two of these approaches. First, I have undertaken to derive from a variety of sources certain basic principles of administration. Some of these principles are so commonplace as to be regarded as axiomatic. Others lack validity to the point at which they become controversial. But, having stated them for my purpose, I formulated some of the most troublesome administrative problems that appear to arise from a lack of recognition or application of these principles. I was unable to go so far as to classify the problems according to the principles involved, so I had to be content with classifying them under broad categories of administrative responsibility. I am sure, however, that the pertinence of the principles will become apparent.

I

Basic Principles of Administration

First of all, then, may I state some of these basic principles as I conceive them, recognizing that some are axiomatic and others controversial.

1. The administrative organization of a college or university is a means of facilitating the effective operation of the institution, and not an end in itself. Therefore the administrative pattern should grow out of a definition of the functions to be performed and of their allocation to selected personnel.

This is only to say that there is evidence of patterned thinking with reference to administrative organization. If you read the reports of consultants to institutions, individuals who are invited in from the outside to look at the organization and administration, you will find running through a series of reports by a particular individual a certain pattern of thinking with reference to administration and therefore a tendency to fit the institution to the pattern, rather than to have the pattern of administration grow out of the functions to be performed in the institution by the personnel available to perform those functions.

2. Related functions should be grouped together and should be centered in one administrative officer.

I need not expand this at length. In the field of student personnel services a situation can be very confused when a half-dozen people on a campus are each responsible for certain student relationships or activities and there is no person in charge through whom those functions are ultimately channeled administratively. Likewise, what confusion can result if the business functions are decentralized and spread all over the campus without one co-ordinating office through which those functions channel.

3. There should be a clear differentiation between policy making and administrative functions.

This I will elaborate upon later and shall not expand further here.

4. There should be a unity of command, and line relationships should be clearly defined, so that each person in the administrative setup knows who his immediate superior is and what authority is delegated to his superior and to him.

The more clearly those line relationships are defined and the more clearly the authority reposed in individuals is determined, the less likelihood is there of conflict.

5. The authority vested in an administrative officer should be commensurate with the responsibility delegated to him.

Now this is so obvious that it hardly needs any interpretation. And yet I am amazed how frequently this very principle is violated in practice. I visited an institution that has a president. Yet neither the president nor the business manager can make a single purchase without first having the approval of the chairman of the board of trustees of that institution. I know another college that has a president, but he is primarily a figurehead, because the chief sponsor of the institution has an office just opposite that of the president and everything done relating to the program of that institution must clear over the sponsor's desk before it can become operative.

6. There is a limit to the span of control that can be effectively managed by one administrative officer. This limit should be determined and observed with reference to each administrative officer.

I recall some years ago, it was around 1932, when a survey was made of the University of Chicago. It was found in that study, as I remember it, that seventy-six different offices reported directly to the president of the institution. A reorganization was effected which reduced that to six or eight, which

is much more sensible from the standpoint of the span of administrative relationships than any particular office can comprehend.

7. The facilities and tools of management should be adequate to make possible effective supervision, control, and management.

I mean such simple things as appropriate office space, appropriate secretarial service, and regular reports that keep individuals informed as to what is happening in other areas of the institution.

8. The auxiliary services should facilitate rather than dominate the administration.

Do I need to illustrate this principle? First of all—from the standpoint of student work programs on some campuses—I have found that the industries of the campus tend to dominate the program, and everything rotates around the industries. They do not serve as a facilitating agent for the educational activities of the institution. Then, of course, there is the ever-recurring problem of athletics. To what extent are the programs of colleges and universities dominated by athletic interests?

9. Democracy in administration is desirable—I could say essential—but it has its limits.

I will refer to this point later.

10. Integrity is a *sine qua non* of administration!

Integrity, simple basic honesty. This may appear again as an axiomatic statement. It is fundamental.

11. Change and reorganization should be made as indicated by analysis, special studies, and evaluation. Vested interests or resistance to change should not be permitted to inhibit growth and improvement.

One thing is clear. A certain degree of turmoil, short of confusion, is healthful in an institution. There is a limit to the amount of turmoil that is healthful just as there is a limit to the application of the concept of democracy.

Broad Categories of Administrative Concern

The usual pattern of administrative organization takes the form of a hierarchy, with the board of trustees at the highest level of authority. Subordinate to the board are the president, the administrative staff, the faculty, and the student body. The problems of administration fall into two broad categories: (A) those arising from the interrelationships of groups or individuals at the several administrative levels, that is, within the board of control or board of trustees, at the level of the president, at the level of the chief administrative officers responsible to the president, at the level of the faculty, or at the level of students; (B) those that arise between these several spheres of operation, e.g., the president and dean, the dean and the faculty, the faculty and the students, or at the top, the president and the board of trustees.

II

Problems That Involve Primarily the Board of Trustees

THE TERM "trustee" implies an official responsibility to society. To discharge this responsibility effectively, trustees must understand the limits of their authority and the distinction between the functions which they should perform as a board and the functions which they should delegate to administrative officers of the college. Some of the serious problems at this level arise from the failure of boards of trustees or individual members of a board to differentiate between policy making, which is properly a board function, and the performance of administrative functions in accordance with board policies.

It is not necessary to cite many illustrations of this point. Boards of trustees have been known to serve as purchasing agents for colleges, to issue directives for the dismissal of faculty members, to give private audiences to faculty members or students without the knowledge of the administration, and to appoint administrative officers without the recommendation or concurrence of the president.

I know situations where boards of trustees have appointed the athletic coach at a higher salary than that of the president and without consultation with the president. Boards of trustees have been known to authorize or to construct buildings without adequate consultation with the faculty in order to determine whether or not the buildings will actually serve the major needs of the institution. They have proceeded with the construction of an expensive stadium when a classroom building or a library was needed much more. They have spent many hours on such matters as purchasing supplies, selecting

furnishings and equipment, disposing of unneeded equipment, supervising repairs, passing on scholarship awards and grants-in-aid, approving faculty travel to attend professional meetings.

The principle that is not clearly recognized in such situations is that the board of trustees is a policy-making body and that administrative matters should be delegated to the president whom they select, and through him to his staff officers.

What can be done to prevent these situations from arising?

The board should have a clearly formulated statement of its powers and its functions. Such a statement should be available to the administration of the college and should always be in the hands of the board itself. This statement will be based on the provisions of the legal charter creating the board and broadly defining its purposes, and on the formulation of such bylaws as the board itself considers essential to carry out those powers and responsibilities.

When a new board member is appointed he should be informed, in advance of his acceptance of membership, what the functions of the board members are and within what limits the board operates. Such an advance orientation may discourage a potential board member from thinking he will have an opportunity to reform the institution or to shape it to conform to his personal interests.

Not infrequently problems at the board level grow out of the official relationship of the president to the board. One extreme illustration is that of a president who served as chairman of his board of trustees and had the final veto in the selection of new members of his board. The president couldn't see that there was any problem involved at all. Maybe there wasn't, for him. If one of the proper functions of a board is to make a continuing or periodic evaluation of the status and progress of the institution, under the administration of the president, it seems absurdly illogical that the president should serve as chairman of the board that judges his own administration.

At the opposite extremity is the case of the president who

relies upon the board as a shield against unfavorable reactions that may follow decisions that have to be made in the best interests of the institution. This involves decisions sometimes with reference to the severance of faculty members from the institution, decisions with reference to regulations governing students, and matters of that kind, where a president defends himself by saying, "Well, this is a requirement, or this is an action of the board of trustees." By taking matters to the board which he himself should decide, he invites the very kind of interference that confuses policy-making and administrative functions. In fact the president abdicates to some degree his responsibility as president.

It is a wise board that clearly recognizes that its proper sphere of operation will ordinarily include these matters: the selection of the chief administrative officer of the college or university, the delegation of responsibility for the effective operation of the institution to the president, the approval of policies and procedures, the approval of plans for the improvement and development of the institution, the periodic or continuing evaluation of institutional operation and achievement, providing the public, especially the constituency of the institution, with information about the institution, providing or obtaining financial support for the institution, and serving as legal custodian of property and assets of the institution.

It is a wise president who assumes full responsibility for the management of the institution of which he is president, who adroitly keeps the board so fully occupied with matters of policies and plans that they are not tempted to dabble in administration, and who recognizes so fully the role of the board that he will not presume to bring the board under his administrative control or abdicate in favor of the board's control.

There is sure to be a problem when trustees individually or collectively give audience to faculty members or students without the knowledge of the administration. This relationship generally serves no good purpose but is likely to breed suspicion and ultimately dissension. Frequently, however, there

is a desire on the part of faculty members and trustees to become better acquainted. Faculty members like trustees to know about their courses, about their special interests, about their needs. Trustees want to know the faculty members personally, what their points of view are, how they teach, what problems they encounter. These are justifiable interests. If a president recognizes them by arranging social occasions for faculty and trustees to meet, by arranging for trustees individually or collectively to see the educational program in operation, he may pave the way to mutual understanding and cooperation instead of mutual criticism arising from misinformation.

This means above all else that the president should provide the board of trustees regularly with full, complete, accurate, and interesting reports on all phases of the operation of his institution. I really find the reports of some presidents exciting reading, because they raise the sights of those for whom the reports are designed without distorting the picture of what is actually going on in their institutions.

III

Some Problems Within the Sphere of the College President

THE PRESIDENT of a college or university holds a position of great responsibility. A few years ago, in an article published in the *North Central Association Quarterly*, I raised the question: "Why be a college president?" And some people have come back at me and said, "Why were you?" I pointed out that the president and his wife are set apart from the faculty and staff. They are frequently the most lonesome people in the world. The president has no assurance of security of position. Look at the average tenure of presidents. He is president at the will of the board. He has no leisure, and he has very little privacy. In that article I said:

> The president's life is an open book. His home life, his community activities, his friendships, his conversation, his eccentricities, his hobbies—every aspect of his personal and professional life is subject to scrutiny. His position demands that he be constantly within reach, at least by long-distance telephone. Someone must always know where he is, why he is there, what he is doing, and where he expects to be next. Then, too, the president must always weigh his words and his actions both in public relations and in more intimate personal contacts. He is looked upon as the representative of the college. Therefore, what he says or does is construed as reflecting the point of view of the administration. In a word, he becomes a human symbol of the spirit of the college or university of which he is president.

The college presidency is an ulcerative kind of position. And it should not be held by an individual who has an ulcerative tendency or disposition. To find the right man for the position, and the one who lacks the ulcerative disposition, is a problem of no small magnitude. It is, of course, a problem for the board

of trustees. But the first problem of the president himself is to get his bearings in relation to his board, his faculty, and his constituency. Not infrequently he will discover to his amazement situations about which he was not informed prior to his induction. Within himself he will say, "Why didn't someone tell me about this?" Then with a start, he will realize the answer: "You didn't ask!"

This is another way of saying that the more fully and accurately the board informs the potential president about all aspects of the college, and the more fully a president investigates all phases of the position before accepting it, the less intense will be his disillusionment later. The first real problem of the president is to sense in advance some of the difficult situations which he is likely to meet. He should be able to ask the right questions and to get the full answers to those questions before deciding.

A few years ago you will recall there was a tremendous forest fire in Maine. It was in the fall of the year during the football season. At Bowdoin College games were canceled, and the football men went out to fight the forest fires. Hot and exhausted, some of the football players who had been fighting fires were walking down a country road when they came to a farmer's well where there was a bucket of water. The farmer was standing in the yard at a distance. Two fire fighters drank heartily. A third, who was a bit more cautious, turned to the farmer and said, "Is this water all right to drink?" He said, "No." The other two said, "Why didn't you tell us?" He said, "You didn't ask me"—a characteristic New England response. But the same thing is true frequently with reference to the president. He hasn't been told because he didn't ask. He didn't ask because he didn't know the right questions to ask in advance.

I have talked with many presidents who were about to enter upon their new positions. What they have asked me frequently has involved the kind of question they should have asked before they ever considered accepting the presidency.

Whatever problems they are likely to encounter should be envisioned in advance, and should be clearly delineated before going into the position.

How well a president succeeds will depend in a large measure on how clearly he conceives his functions and responsibilities. If one were to enumerate the most important of these responsibilities, the list would certainly include such items as these: the selection of key administrative and teaching personnel, the maintenance of faculty morale and growth by establishing favorable conditions of faculty service, making reports and recommending policies to the board of trustees, reviewing and revising the purposes and programs of the institution, arranging for or approving special studies needed to guide the administration, the promotion and maintenance of good public relations, the protection of the interests of the faculty and staff, the cultivation of financial and moral support, and in general setting an example for the faculty and staff to emulate.

Demands Upon the President

In performing his functions the college president is likely to encounter such perplexing situations as the following:

1. Keeping institutional purposes in focus. Both the nature and the scope of the curriculum and the total institutional program must be related to the purposes the institution is designed to serve. The responsibility for the definition and redefinition of purposes devolves upon the president. But a wise president will enlist the full cooperation of the faculty and staff in stating and interpreting the purposes. Some of the most impressive statements of purposes appearing in catalogs do not reflect either the thinking or the endorsement of faculty members. They are the product of one man's creative imagination and facile pen.

A few years ago, when I was secretary of the Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association, I arranged for a study to be made of the purposes of liberal arts colleges

in the North Central area. I shall not report the findings in any detail, but I do remember two conclusions derived from the study. One was that the students in most of the colleges knew more about the purposes of the institution than the faculty members did; and secondly, that the faculty members knew very little about those purposes because they had had very little to do with their formulation in the first place.

Purposes formulated independently and imposed upon a faculty or administration do not achieve what they are designed to achieve. I recall a specific instance of a university president who presented for adoption at a faculty meeting without previous discussion a statement of purposes and policies to go into the catalog of the institution, the catalog to go to press within the next day or two. One gentleman, bolder than the rest of the faculty members, raised a question as to the honesty of the statement. He said, "This says that we do some things that we're not doing." The president brushed aside the statement by saying, "This represents our intentions." The same expression of intentions had been repeated for five, six, or ten years in that institution.

Quite as serious a matter as defining cooperatively the purposes of an institution is holding to those purposes once they have been agreed upon. The temptations of opportunism are sometimes hard to resist. The confusion of quality of education with bigness is all too common. The best assurance of quality and the strongest antidote to opportunism is a set of clearly defined and generally accepted purposes which are held to in the guidance and development of a program of the institution. As I have looked at institutions that have followed an opportunistic philosophy and have disregarded what should have been their guiding purposes, I have been impressed too often with the fact that this is an expression of desperation on the part of the institution. Administrators think they see an opportunity to attract a few students in a particular field by offering a new type of program or new courses. Therefore they set out now in one direction, now in another, rather than hold-

ing clearly, resolutely, to a fundamental guiding philosophy expressed in a set of purposes.

2. Establishing an effective administrative organization. One of the principles stated earlier was that the administrative organization is a means of facilitating the effective operation of the institution. The pattern of administrative organization, therefore, should grow out of a definition of the functions to be performed and of their allocation to selected individuals.

Several difficulties arise in the practical application of this principle. First, a president frequently inherits a long-established and highly revered administrative staff whose competence may not measure up to his expectations or whose functions represent a pattern of administrative confusion. Second, having had little or no professional preparation or experience in college administration, the president is not clear as to the essential functions to be performed or as to the best organization for their performance. Third, the president sometimes flatters himself into believing he can best administer the institution and he therefore maintains a staff of puppets, if it is a staff at all. A competent president must be willing to define functions and then to delegate them, holding those to whom they are delegated responsible for their effective administration.

Generally the administrative functions in a college or university fall into four major categories: academic, business, student personnel, and public relations. The selection of a competent staff member with full responsibility for each area will relieve the president of unduly extending the span of his control and will allow time for imaginative planning. I have always had an admiration for Beardsley Ruml's philosophy. When he was the chief fiscal officer of Macy's, he set aside time in his busy schedule just to think, to ponder new ideas. I assume he still follows this practice. Whether we approve or disapprove of his proposals, we have seen the far-reaching product of some of that creative thinking. I think presidents might well establish a similar policy, and delegate so effectively their ad-

ministrative responsibilities that they might at least have an hour a day when they could lean back and allow their imaginations to roam, in terms of the future of the institution which rests in their hands.

The president must not assume, on the other hand, as he too often does, that the appointment of a good staff solves all of his administrative problems. It devolves upon him to define and redefine the responsibility of each officer, to co-ordinate adminstrative activities in order to develop a spirit of team work, and to be ready to make final decisions on special issues that involve the application or interpretation of institutional policy.

The surest way to demoralize an administrative organization is arbitrarily to disregard staff members in making decisions. Time and again instances come to my attention in which a president requests a faculty member to give a special examination to an ineligible athlete; or the president instructs the admissions officer to admit a student who falls far short of qualifying under the admissions policy of the institution. Then there is the president who instructs the business officer to make purchases contrary to established policies, or without consulting responsible staff members to readmit students who have been dismissed. How can a president who has any conception of good administration do such things? Yet they are being done.

Some of you may have gone through the experience of applying for accreditation in the North Central Association. For a number of years I served as one of the examiners of such institutions. One of the first points of approach was to assemble in one office the president, his administrative staff, and if possible the chairman and some members of the board of trustees. Then we fired at these individuals 179 questions relating to policy making and administration: Who does this? Who has final responsibility for making a decision in this area? In some instances it became very clear that the differentiation between policy making and administrative procedure was well under-

stood and was functioning effectively, that the responsibility for making administrative decisions within the institution was clearly allocated and was operating satisfactorily. In other instances it became equally clear that nobody quite knew who did what.

3. Bringing about change without creating revolt. For those of you who have been over the road, this requires no elaboration. For example, how can Professor X be induced to retire without hurting his feelings and without arousing a deluge of sentiment among his associates? The obvious answer is, of course, to establish a retirement policy. But new factors such as the increasing life span and the growing deficit in the supply of college teachers complicate immeasurably the adoption and application of a uniform retirement policy. Any other alternative gives rise to endless complications. How can a president profit by the competence of the mature and vigorous teacher-scholar without at the same time being handicapped by continuing the services of those whose period of usefulness has expired? It is especially difficult for those of us who approach or have reached the usual age of retirement to judge our own competence.

On several occasions I have proposed a plan which may have merit. It is that a group of colleges and universities, state or regional, jointly appoint a board composed of a physician, a psychiatrist, a layman, and a faculty member, to whom a professor who is approaching retirement might go for a confidential appraisal of his competence and for frank advice as to the direction in which he should make plans for the future. Should he think of continuing his professional work on a full-time or a part-time basis? Should he limit his professional activities to occasional lectures or consultations? Might he consider a special assignment abroad? Or should he turn in the direction of hobbies or leisure activities?

At the request of the person seeking the advice, a statement might be given him, or be directed to a president or dean in-

terested in his services, indicating the findings of the advisory committee. Such an impartial and impersonal committee might rescue college presidents from many an embarrassing situation. In the years immediately ahead, one of the major problems that will confront presidents and deans will be that of obtaining competent faculties to provide for a rapidly growing enrolment. It is estimated that by 1960 if all of the people who take their doctor's degrees in American colleges and universities were to go into college teaching, there would still be a deficit of about 4,000 college teachers. We know that not all Ph.D.'s go into college teaching. We also know that for some college positions a Ph.D. is not an ultimate requirement.

Nevertheless, we are faced with a growing deficit in the field of college teachers. This fact serves to emphasize the importance of identifying those teacher-scholars who though advanced in years still have much more to give as teachers. In a limited way the John Hay Whitney Foundation has recognized the potentialities of these resources by establishing a roster of retiring scholars in the humanities and the social sciences and by making teaching awards to five retired scholars each year. This idea might well be extended to include all of the disciplines and professional fields. A national agency such as the American Council on Education or the Association of American Colleges might maintain such a roster; or various church boards might try out the idea in some form. This has its corollary, of course, of identifying promising young scholars and providing appropriate assistance and inducements to them to enter the field of college teaching instead of going into industry or into government.

Another important example of a problem in this area is keeping the curriculum under control. One of the great tendencies of college faculties is to multiply courses. It isn't uncommon to find departmental proliferation to such a point that the course offerings amount to several times the minimum requirements for a major. In one of the studies I have underway, I have found if a single student would attempt to take

all of the courses in one department, carrying a normal load of thirty semester hours a year, it would take him thirty-two years. That is not an exaggeration; it is a mathematically demonstrated fact. Some years ago I found in a liberal arts college that a mathematics department, requiring twenty-four hours for a major, was offering one hundred and five semester hours. You will find the same kind of overexpansion in many departments. In such instances the specialized interests of a professor outweigh the basic purposes of the curriculum or the needs of students.

When instructional costs are computed they tend to run high for overexpanded departments. I have on my desk, for example, the calculated cost of teaching student-semester hours based on instructional salaries in various fields in different institutions. Those computations show that in one institution it costs more than $35 per student-semester hour to teach home economics; that in the same institution it costs $7.95 to teach a student-semester hour of mathematics; that in one institution it costs $12.50 per student-semester hour in physical education; in another institution it costs $30 to teach physical education.

The whole plan of curriculum organization constitutes an administrative problem. By the departmentalization of subject matter we have destroyed the essential interrelationships of the fields of knowledge. Moreover, the departmental plan of administration is unnecessarily costly. It tends to divert the time of faculty members from their major function of teaching to administration. You may have ten or fifteen departments. Each department head insists that he has administrative responsibilities which call for a release of part of his teaching time. If you add up the fraction of time that each one requires to administer his department, and translate that into teaching time, you can see what it costs. Those administrative functions can be combined by areas or fields or divisions so as to achieve more effective administration at a much lower cost.

How can the central administration achieve the essential

unity of the curriculum? How can this complex proliferation and subdivision be corrected? How can you bring about once more an integration of the fundamental fields of knowledge? This is a subject which I wish it were possible to pursue further.

4. Protecting and defending the interests of the faculty and staff. "Freedom to teach and freedom to learn are in constant jeopardy." This is not a new situation. One of the purposes of education is to teach people to think, and to try to teach them to think we must venture out into new directions of knowledge and into the realm of new ideas.

Some years ago I was presiding at a forum in the People's Church in Chicago. The speakers on that forum were Preston Bradley, Harry Gideonse, and Clarence Darrow. When I came to introduce Clarence Darrow, I didn't know exactly what to say. To keep the introduction brief, I said, "He's a man who is admired by many because of his broad humanitarian interests. He's a man who's criticized by some because he has thought ahead of his generation." Clarence Darrow, then about eighty, somewhat uncertain in his step, came up to the speaker's stand. He turned to me and said, "Mr. Chairman, it isn't hard to think ahead of your generation. If you think at all, you're ahead of it." I'm afraid that Clarence Darrow gave an uncomfortably accurate characterization of much of what happens in education. If we think at all, we are ahead of our generation. But if education does not lead youth to think ahead of our generation, it falls short of achieving its purpose.

He who thought ahead of his generation in the past was suspect; and he who taught others to think constructively was doubly so. One such teacher was condemned to drink hemlock because he was convicted of corrupting the youth of his day. Today we extol his type of corruption. One such great teacher was crucified because He refused to retract his teaching of a new social philosophy. One great scientist who pursued the truth wherever it might lead, developed certain new principles

of science and was repudiated by the Academy of Science in France and was condemned by the Government of France to be guillotined. Later Lavoisier's principles were accepted, but Lavoisier's life could not be restored.

It is the function of the teacher-scholar to blaze new trails of thought, relentlessly to pursue and teach the truth. The real troubles of a president arise when the teachings of faculty members are in conflict with conventional beliefs and practices of members of the board of trustees, or of members of the community, or of the constituent society of the institution. To deal with such situations forthrightly requires a clear foundation of a policy of academic freedom, an acceptance of the policy by the board of trustees and the faculty, and a clearly defined procedure for examining all cases in which faculty members are accused of violating this policy.

The situations most likely to arise are in religion. We note recently reports of the heresy trial of a minister of a Lutheran Church in Milwaukee. Heresy trials in churches are less frequent than they used to be, but heresy trials of a sort are still not uncommon as far as professors in colleges are concerned. They are not limited to theology and the principles of theology; they also arise in the field of political science, in the field of economics, in the field of sociology. Courses in the family and marriage are among those that give rise to serious reactions on the part of parents and constituents at times.

The public has great difficulty in differentiating between freedom to teach and antisocial conduct, just as society has great difficulty in differentiating between security and loyalty in public servants. I could give ample illustrations of the difficulty that members of society have in this area. I served on the President's Loyalty Review Board for three years. In that connection, I read case after case of individuals who were charged with disloyalty in which was reflected very clearly the confusion of elements of security with elements of disloyalty. The analogy in relation to faculty members is very close in some respects, because we have difficulty in differentiating be-

tween what is really regarded as antisocial and what truly is merely the privilege of an individual to pursue and teach the truth.

On the other hand, faculty members at times show poor judgment in their exercise of the prerogative of academic freedom and thereby create embarrassing situations not only for themselves but for their institutions as well. Within the last year—this is a matter of public knowledge because it was reported in the press—a professor of a Florida institution appeared before a group of young people to discuss some of our modern social problems, including the use of narcotics. He tended to interpret some of the scientific evidence with reference to the use of narcotics in a way that was construed by the press and some of the social agencies as encouraging youth to think that narcotics are not as dangerous, and that acquiring the habit of the use of narcotics is not as serious, as was commonly believed. Great pressure was brought upon the president of that institution to dismiss summarily the faculty member. The president of that institution very shrewdly said, "Let's investigate all the facts." He let temperatures cool off. He found that the facts supported the position of the professor but that he showed great indiscretion in the way he used the facts with the particular group to which he presented them. It was a case for censure, to say the least, and for guidance as far as this faculty member was concerned. But it was not fundamentally a violation of the principle of academic freedom.

A president cannot stand by and see honest and conscientious faculty members crucified by public opinion, nor can he ignore the indiscretions of faculty members whose bad judgment brings them and the institutions into disrepute. You have seen some notable examples of university and college presidents who have been willing to stand up and face the public in defense of the rights of their own faculty members. And whatever your opinions and your personal emotional reactions may be to Robert Maynard Hutchins, you will have to concede that this

is one point on which he stood foursquare in defense of his faculty. James Bryant Conant is not as controversial a figure in higher education, but he has stood equally in defense of academic freedom. On the other hand, some of us have been in difficult and confusing situations, because we haven't been quite clear as to the course we should pursue in situations of this kind.

5. Evaluating regularly the effectiveness of the college or university. The one word that needs to be spelled out in bold letters, black on a white background, like Watson's THINK is the word *quality* in higher education. There are so many factors that jeopardize quality; there are so many ways in which quality can be ignored for other considerations, that we must keep it constantly before us. In the last analysis the judgment of the quality of an institution means the evaluation of the administration of that institution.

Such an evaluation can be made in several ways. It can be made by inviting outside consultants to appraise various phases of an institution's program, someone who will look at and analyze critically the curriculum; someone who will spend some time looking objectively at the student personnel services, their adequacy, their organization, their relationship to the purposes and needs of the students in that institution; someone who will look at the business management side from the standpoint of accounting and purchasing procedures and the use of the dollar, and so on. That is one approach.

Another approach is to have a survey where a team of individuals make a detailed study and analysis of the total institution, and prepare a report of their observations and recommendations. Another, perhaps more important than either of these, is self-evaluation, a continuing study by the faculty and staff or by someone who is employed as a staff member, to carry on studies for the faculty and administration.

Among the difficulties that a president encounters in making an evaluation or in promoting evaluation studies are these:

A. ***Providing financial resources for such study.***
Both faculty members and board members frequently fail to see the value of money spent on consultants, on a survey staff, or on a research staff member.

B. ***Securing the full cooperation of the faculty.***
Frequently there is a secret fear, sometimes justified, that such an evaluation will not be to the best interests of certain faculty members. If you really attempt to make an objective evaluation or appraisal of the quality of instruction, for example, there are faculty members who are reluctant to subject themselves and their procedures to such an examination.

C. ***The identification of the indices of good administration.***
What do you look for, anyway, in attempting to evaluate the administration of an institution?

On this last point I would indicate that you can get information on such items as:

Instructional costs
Faculty load
Faculty output
Space utilization
Administrative costs

By output I don't mean primarily research but, in a liberal arts college, the number of students that a faculty member carries through his courses and his success in teaching those students.

The effective use of space is of major importance. In California the criterion that has been set is 75 per cent of the possible utilization of space in a college or university. That is, if you have a possible use of forty-four hours per week for all classrooms and all student stations in a classroom, about 75 per cent of such utilization would be the maximum that would normally be expected. On the other hand, I find in institutions I am examining at the present time that space

utilization drops as low as 33 per cent of the maximum possibility. It is very difficult to justify plant expansion in the face of that kind of utilization of the space already available. I realize there are factors that affect such utilization, which I won't go into here. Nevertheless, it is one of the indices that an administration can use in appraising its own operation.

Another index is the cost of administration and operation of auxiliary activities in relation to the cost of instruction and plant maintenance. Here again I find that administrative costs range anywhere from 12 or 13 per cent to 25 or 30 per cent of the expenditures for salaries.

Also consideration must be given to the retention of students. What percentage of students fail one or more courses or a certain number of hours of the courses which they take? What percentage of students are lost to the institution during the year or at the end of the year? I have found on some campuses that less than 40 per cent of the students who enter as freshmen graduate, i.e., receive degrees from the institution they enter, and that a large majority of those who leave do so by the end of the freshman or at the most by the end of the sophomore year. When one finds conditions of that kind, he must inquire into the contributory factors.

These are merely illustrative of some of the kinds of data that an administration can use for the purpose of evaluating its operation. One of our common problems is that the information from one institution is often not directly comparable with that from another. We must move in the direction of finding means of establishing comparable data. To some extent this has been done by some of the regional accrediting associations and by the U. S. Office of Education. For instance, how should enrolments be reported?

Should we count only the total number of individuals registered at a specified time or should this number be translated into equivalent full-time students? Likewise in considering faculty, should the size of the teaching staff be expressed in terms of the total number of persons who do any teaching

or in terms of the equivalent of full-time faculty members? It is because we employ such varying procedures that our data are not comparable. One benefit I hope will derive from statewide studies is the development of a body of comparable information. Already data available from the New Mexico, Arizona, and California studies are somewhat comparable. Ultimately, it is to be hoped, such comparability may extend to include all higher institution. As we have noted, the regional accrediting associations in cooperation with the United States Office of Education are in a strategic position to act in the achievement of this objective.

IV

Problems in Administration in the Sphere of the Faculty

AN ALERT visitor need not be on a college campus very long to sense what may be called the "atmosphere" or the "spirit" of the campus. From conversations with faculty and students and from his observations, he will detect whether the morale of the faculty is good, whether there is a strong feeling of loyalty to the administration, and whether there is a contagious enthusiasm about the college or university program. Where these conditions are not at an optimum one is immediately led to inquire why. Such an inquiry brings into focus some of the special problems in administration affecting or involving the faculty. I will note here three kinds of problems.

1. A lack of clear understanding by the faculty of its role in the administration of the institution. There are those who believe that the faculty should have ultimate and final authority in such matters as the curriculum and the appointment of new faculty members. They hold, moreover, that in the interest of democratic administration, duly constituted representatives of the faculty should be members of administrative committees and councils and should even be voting members of the board of trustees. There are others who take the position that the faculty is employed to teach and conduct research and that it should be free from concern about administrative matters to pursue these particular responsibilities. A fairly strong case can be made for either point of view. Real difficulties arise, however, when aggressive faculty members hold one point of view and the administration holds another.

I should say that in some instances (and this is no criticism as such of the organization) the American Association of University Professors has tended to give support to this schism *between faculty members* on the one hand and administrative members on the other.

There is a sort of union attitude on the part of faculty members in some institutions that leads them to insist upon the exercise of certain administrative prerogatives. I have seen deans and presidents agonize over their impotence to bring needed revisions to the curriculum or to bring about the appointment of distinguished scholars to the faculty, because of the veto vested in or assumed by faculty members. In some instances this is an assumed power that grows out of consultation, where consultation is reduced to a vote, and where the administration then does not feel free to go contrary to the vote taken in the consultation of faculty members.

Revision of the curriculum generally constitutes a threat to some of the vested academic interests. Take this as one illustration. A few years ago, Dr. Paul Anderson, now president of Pennsylvania College for Women, and I were invited to conduct a two-weeks workshop for faculty members in a well-known institution in the East. The first day we met, employing the democratic method, we approached the question of procedure. The purpose of the workshop was to examine the curriculum of that institution. Immediately there were certain vocal elements of the group who said, "Let's look at what we're offering now and see whether we ought to continue to offer what we have or to provide something else." The vested interests were speaking. They were immediately on the defensive.

We finally got around to the point of asking, "What do you want to see happen to the students between the time they enter and the time they leave this college? How can you judge what is happening to them and whether you are a part of what is happening during that period? What kind of experiences will be called for? How do these experiences express

themselves in the curriculum?" When we started from that point of view, we immediately got underway, and began to look objectively at the purposes of the institution and how it could achieve those purposes through its curriculum. They are still in the process of trying to achieve them.

Likewise the appointment of an outstanding teacher or scholar constitutes a threat to the status of less-distinguished members of a faculty. Unwittingly, therefore, college faculty members may become the protagonists of mediocrity in their own institution, because they are not willing to face the threat of individuals of superior status and scholarship. This is a good illustration of the principle that "democracy in administration is desirable but it has its limits."

At the other extreme is the administration that formulates a statement of the purposes of the institution, and announces it to the faculty and public without prior faculty consultation; that adds or deletes courses and programs without conference with faculty persons concerned; and that makes new appointments without consultation. In the first instance, where faculty controls prevail, the effect on the morale of the administration is bad; in the second instance, where dictatorial powers are exercised by the administration, the effect on the morale of the faculty is equally bad. There must, therefore, be found a middle ground.

In searching for this middle ground, may I revert to the principles that I stated earlier? One was that functions should be clearly defined and allocated. The generally accepted function of the faculty is to teach and to carry on research. This involves the organization of subject matter and learning experiences within the broad areas of the curriculum that are recommended by the faculty and approved by the administration, the formulation of tests and exercises to measure the student's progress and achievement, the preparation of such reports as are necessary for keeping accurate records, and for appraising the student's competence for advanced study or for employment.

In the interest of having the benefit of faculty judgment and experience, it is essential that the faculty individually or collectively have an advisory or consultative relationship to the administration on many matters that affect the institution as a whole, including such things as planning new instructional facilities, administrative reorganization, and public relations. This does not mean that the faculty members should be burdened with committee assignments involving the performance of duties that are primarily administrative, such as planning and managing a public lecture and concert series, managing social affairs, or dealing with matters of student discipline.

A good friend, currently the ambassador to Haiti, once said that a committee meeting is a place where we keep minutes and waste hours. And I think that is too often true of faculty committees. Did you ever read a set of faculty minutes covering a period of several years to see what faculty members actually do in their meetings? It is very revealing, very informative. I have seen some reports that warmed my heart because of the material discussed: reports of new developments in education, reports of people who attended professional meetings and had something to bring back for the rest of the faculty. I have read others that were most disheartening. I can't imagine more deadening faculty meetings than those devoted to reports of committees, to passing on the status of students or the eligibility of athletes, and other matters of that kind.

It is of the utmost importance that the functions and relationships of the administration and faculty be stated and published in a form that is available to each staff and faculty member. Such a statement will help the administration to orient potential appointees to the philosophy, organization, and relationships in the institution, and will be a basis for harmonious procedure within the institution.

2. The evaluation and improvement of teaching. This must be a common concern of the faculty and the administration; yet it is a point of considerable sensitivity. First of all,

one needs to be informed as to what are the incentives to good teaching, generally and in a particular institution.

Faculty members want to be promoted. They want increases in salary. But when promotions and increases in salary are based on some common, uniform plan, there really isn't much of an incentive to be outstanding or distinguished in service, because these benefits come to everybody in course of time. But to give recognition for merit, on the other hand, requires the definition of criteria by which to judge merit. Here is where the problem arises. What weight is given to the contributions to scholarly literature and what weight to good classroom teaching? How can you judge the quality of classroom teaching? By the judgment of the faculty member's peers? By the judgment of students? By the success of students in graduate and professional study? This is an area of special sensitivity because many faculty members are allergic to what they consider an educationist's approach, but they can't suggest any more acceptable methods for evaluating their service and are therefore stymied.

I had the responsibility to recommend for a period of years three faculty members each year for outstanding teaching, in order that they might be given an award for distinguished service to the college. This was in the field of general education. The award carried with it a monetary consideration of $1,000. How would you proceed, within a faculty of several hundred, to identify the three people who merit public mention and a special financial consideration for their distinguished service? This is a specific, concrete illustration of a problem in evaluation.

Another facet of this problem is the induction of the neophyte into college teaching. The use of this word "facet" reminds me of an application for admission to the University of Chicago in which one section is given to the writing by the student of why he wants to go to college, what his ambitions are. A bright young student from the East had written two

pages and then started out with this sentence: "And now may I turn to another 'faucet' of my personality."

One of the paradoxes of higher education is that we rely on the graduate schools for the preparation of college teachers when most of the graduate schools are unconcerned about what preparation college teachers should have. They assume, apparently, that an individual who is a master of a narrow field of subject matter, who has demonstrated competence in specialized research, is thereby qualified to teach in college.

The neophyte college teacher knows about methods of teaching in college only what he has observed in his undergraduate and graduate classes. And not infrequently, he will be exposed to the kind of philosophy demonstrated by one professor who said his great satisfaction in teaching was derived from helping the bright students and razzing the dumbbells. He has had no opportunity to study the psychology of learning, new approaches to the diagnosis of learning difficulties, or new methods of measuring achievement. Indeed, he has gained no adequate concept of the philosophy of higher education or of the role of the arts and science in modern life. When he comes to the college as a beginner, he is assigned a classroom, his teaching program is given him, students are enrolled in his classes, and he is put on his own responsibility to sink or swim.

You will probably recall that delightful incident about the very young professor who appeared on the campus for the first time, and was going into the classroom with the students. One of the students—probably a football man—said to the young professor: "Are you new here?" He answered, "Yes." The football man said, "Well, I'll tell you: the first day we take the back seat, and if the prof's pretty good we move forward." You can imagine the surprise of that student when the professor took his place back of the table, and the student took his seat in the back of the room.

The way we teach neophytes on our college faculties is both inhuman and perhaps cruel. Somehow we must revolutionize the graduate preparation of college teachers. But it is a slow

process, as you well realize. There have been some stirrings, sort of prenatal stirrings, in the field of graduate education, relating to the preparation of teachers, but there hasn't emerged as yet a fully developed body.

At the other end of the scale from the neophyte is the faculty member who has taught the same courses in the same way for a quarter of a century. Sometimes his courses are outstandingly good. More often they are worn threadbare. In this instance the problem is how to revitalize the fossilized. Campus conferences, workshops, leaves for study or travel, faculty exchanges with other colleges, participation in cooperative studies—and I like the idea I heard recently of a sort of musical-chair arrangement of faculty members rotating in what they teach. These are means that readily occur to one. But no one of them or even all of them will solve the problems of the person who feels no need for such a revitalizing experience.

3. Conditions of faculty service that affect morale. One of the first requisites of high faculty morale is mutual confidence between faculty and administration. Such confidence quickly fades when deans or presidents make promises they cannot and do not fulfill, or when faculty members complain about being overworked when it is obvious they are not working up to their capacity. Basic honesty in these interrelationships is of first importance.

I have found concrete situations (I can identify them chapter and verse) where a president held out to a new faculty member the hope that in a few years the head of the department would retire and that he would be the logical candidate for the headship; where the hope was held out that the wife of a faculty member might teach in the public schools of the community and supplement the faculty member's salary, but later it developed there were rules in the community that prevented the wives of faculty members from teaching there—and these were known. I know situations where faculty members were assured there would be no summer teaching, and yet in the

first summer they were required to remain and teach; where faculty members were assured that there would be time for research, lecturing, and writing, and yet right pop-out-of-the-box they were given full teaching loads with maximum-sized classes. Such unfulfilled promises cannot fail to induce a lack of confidence in an administration's integrity.

Beyond these matters of honesty are such matters as salary, teaching load, tenure policies, housing, leaves, and provisions for retirement. I think a noted American educator had an excellent idea when he proposed that the highest salaries be paid to faculty members at the time when they need the income most; that is, in their earlier years when their families are growing up and have to be educated; and that as faculty members approach more advanced years there be a gradual leveling off or perhaps even scaling down of salary. That would be a popular proposal in your institutions, wouldn't it? Yet it has merit.

Faculty members generally are happy, even though they are working under conditions less favorable than those that obtain in the best institutions, provided they are accurately informed concerning the status of the institution's finance; provided there are no evidences of waste or mismanagement in other phases of the institution's operation; and provided the institution has a clear-cut and justifiable policy about which all faculty members are informed.

As I have already indicated, in the years just ahead it will become increasingly difficult to find competent new faculty members. In a highly competitive situation the conditions of faculty service will be of utmost importance. It behooves presidents and deans, therefore, to study their salary schedules, teaching loads, housing conditions, provisions for leaves, insurance and retirement provisions, with a view to clarifying policies and improving these provisions.

I am one who believes that higher education will undergo a fundamental reorganization in the next fifteen years and that we will abandon some of our conventional concepts about

curriculum organization, size of classes, the necessity of scheduling all or most classes between 9:00 and 12:00 in the morning and 1:00 and 3:00 in the afternoon, and methods of teaching. I believe we will find it necessary and desirable to throw much more responsibility upon the students and particularly the able students than we do now. I believe this revolution inevitably will produce a higher quality of education at a lower cost per student hour of instruction, and that we will not need to sacrifice quality because there is approaching a new deluge of college students.

V

Problems in the Sphere of Student Life and Activities

One of the deadest places in the world is a college campus during vacation time. If you walk through college buildings that are empty and silent, you feel like shouting in order that you may be assured by the sound of your own voice that you are still alive. But in September, when students return, the campus takes on an entirely new significance. The life of a college or university is its students. Physical plants, no matter how excellent, faculties, no matter how competent, in the absence of students, do not constitute a vital educational situation.

How much thought do presidents, deans, and faculty members actually give to the philosophy that governs student life and student relations? This is a comprehensive and significant question; for on the answer to it depends to a large degree the whole spirit and personality of an institution. I shall propose several assumptions of the type that I think should be embodied in a well-thought-out campus philosophy relating to student life and student-faculty relations.

1. The campus is a community of scholars, students, and teachers, dedicated to the achievement of purposes defined by the faculty and administration and approved by the board of trustees.

The term "community of scholars" implies that the controlling purpose of the college or university is the preservation and advancement of scholarship, particularly the development of the intellectual life. It implies further that those dedicated to this common purpose live and work together in an environment

conducive to its achievement. In this concept the student is really the focus of interest.

This sounds very much like the statements that have been made over the years relating to the early schools of philosophy and to the medieval universities. In fact, the concept is much the same as that which prevailed in those earlier institutions.

But in many respects the resemblance of the modern campus to the early schools of philosophy and to the medieval universities is very remote. The number of persons on our campus today is relatively large; their interests and activities are widely diversified; the physical facilities provided for study, instruction, and living are usually elaborate; the management of the institution assumes the aspects of big business; the organized activities are many and varied; and the rules governing the community are of necessity complicated, though probably not as rigid as some of those that applied to the medieval monastic orders; nevertheless they are numerous. In fact, the concept of a "community of scholars" is at times all but lost in the confusion of activities that prevails on many campuses.

2. The purposes of a college or university broadly conceived should provide for the development of the total potentialities—intellectual, social, personal—of each individual.

This point of view merely recognizes the student as a growing and developing personality, a human being who will find his place in a social setting and who will be both happy and effective to the degree that he possesses in true proportion the attributes of the scholar-citizen. This is not an anti-intellectual philosophy, as some may contend, but a recognition that the intellect can be most effective when it functions as a part of a total personality.

In the last analysis this means that we must recognize each student as a distinctive individual, a personality combining a variety of traits. We must recognize, for example, that the students coming into our institutions possess varying degrees

of maturity. We must recognize that their intellectual competences are not all the same, that some possess one type of mind and some another. We must recognize that there is a difference in their preparation for college work and a difference in their emotional make-up. When we put these factors together and then treat individuals *en masse,* starting them as though they were all equally mature, equally well prepared, equally competent, equally stable, giving them a fixed program with fixed procedures, with fixed expectations, our practices contradict the philosophical concept that I am attempting to present. In other words we must understand students as individuals, and aid them to grow from what they are into what we want them to be rather than to sift them out by trying to fit them all into a uniform pattern.

3. Every phase of a college community should be appraised in terms of its contribution to the developmental needs of students.

This means that the extraclassroom activities, or what are commonly called extracurricular activities whatever their nature, whether they are tolerated or sponsored, must justify their existence by the positive contribution they make to the achievement of the educational purpose of the institution.

Did you ever stop to ask yourselves why we have these extraclassroom activities? Did it ever occur to you that they may be an avenue of spontaneous expression for students who find no such avenue in the course of classroom instruction or in the pursuit of their regular programs?

It is necessary, therefore, to think of the total campus, all of its activities, as constituting a part of the educational experience of the student, rather than to think of what happens in the classroom as the educational experience and what happens outside as something extra, something added on, something different. I am sure that if you accept this concept of the development of the total personality, you will agree that what happens to the student outside the classroom is quite as im-

portant as anything that can happen to him in the classroom. It becomes necessary, therefore, that we devise techniques to appraise the extraclassroom activities and life of the campus and help students themselves to keep within reasonable bounds the range of those activities in relation to demands of the classroom.

I cannot go into any details as to how this may be done, but I have very little patience with the usual point system for participation in activities, because a point system is usually designed merely to control maximum participation. The real problem is the group of students, sometimes a third of the student body, who get into no activities at all. They are probably the ones who from the standpoint of total personality needs require most this kind of experience. We forget about them, and we try to impose an arbitrary limit upon those who are already outgoing leaders and outgoing personalities.

I am inclined to think one of the best ways to keep the total activities program within limits is to ask from each organization a statement of its purposes and of its plan of operation, accompanied by a set of rules or bylaws; and to issue to each organization a charter which constitutes the institution's recognition of its existence and accords the privilege of using institutional facilities for its particular purposes. Periodically an appropriate student-faculty or student-administration group should review these activities, withdrawing the charters of those that have passed their period of usefulness and recommending the issuance of charters to new ones that appear to fill a real need.

The basic principle I am attempting to state is that all the experiences a student has on the campus should contribute to the development of his total personality, intellectual, social, and personal, and any experiences that do not contribute to this end cannot be justified on educational grounds.

4. A campus community should constitute a laboratory of experience in democratic living.

This calls into sharp focus, perhaps even into question, the

paternalistic administrative philosophy that prevails on some campuses. For example, the value of student government is frequently questioned because it is argued that students are too immature, too erratic, to govern themselves, that they engage in politics, that the penalties which they impose upon their fellow man are more severe than those which would be imposed by the administration. All this is true, and yet with all of its limitations I will still argue that it is preferable for students to learn by making some mistakes than it is to have all of their decisions made for them.

Is the existence of politics on the campus a more serious matter than the existence of politics in our society at large? If we are here providing experience in democratic living, then perhaps we will have to tolerate some of the political machinations and operations of students, just as we have to tolerate some of them and bring others under control in our society at large.

The regimentation of students not only tends to suppress the development of a sense of responsibility but frequently is an incentive to revolt against authority. I could cite many illustrations of such revolts. These have grown commonly out of a conflict between the administration on the one hand and students who have been repressed and controlled on the other hand to the point at which pent-up emotions exploded.

It is paradoxical that we should accept students who are graduates from high school and impose upon them essentially the same kinds of regulations from the freshman year to the senior year; that we shouldn't reach a point somewhere along the way where they can decide as to the best use of their time on the campus as between reading in the library and going to dull lectures—many of them based upon the same materials which they read. I think it is paradoxical that we should impose much more regulation and regimentation upon high-school graduates who go to college than society imposes upon their counterparts who go to work. The latter are not subject to the kinds of regulations that we require of our students. I

realize that it is necessary to maintain certain minimum standards of ethical conduct and standards for study, but let us not lose sight of the possibility of capitalizing upon the opportunity which the campus provides for experience in personal growth, and growth in democratic living.

Some years ago I visited a campus in the East. As a guest of the institution I was asked to speak to the faculty. I said I would be glad to talk on either of two subjects of special interest to me: "Current Trends in Higher Education" or "How College *Unfits* People for Life." There wasn't any question about the subject which that faculty chose: "How College *Unfits* People for Life." If you stop to think about the kinds of experiences and controls we impose on individuals presumably to prepare them to go out on their own responsibility and exercise leadership in the community, you cannot help realizing the fundamental incompatibility between what we do to students and what we expect of them. And that was the gist of what I attempted to say on that occasion.

5. The preponderance of youth on the campus and the rapid turnover of student membership in the college community impose on the faculty and administration a responsibility for repeated orientation of new students to the purposes and traditions of the community which they enter.

This is a principle that is coming to be quite widely recognized. I wonder, however, whether we take seriously the need for interpreting the great traditions of the institutions that we represent; a justification of why we have certain rules and regulations applying to students on our campus; and above all, an interpretation of the purposes of the institution and the curriculum in relation to those purposes.

One of the most serious limitations in the orientation of students is found in classroom instruction. I am convinced that it is desirable for an instructor to spend a week explaining to students what his course is about and what he and the students will attempt to achieve. The instructor should test them

to see what they know about the subject matter and what they can do with what they know. In addition students should be oriented to the kinds of study methods involved in the course —how to read for the course and how to take notes. Such procedure would pay off many times over in terms of what students achieve, and would avoid much of the floundering that students go through in attempting to get started in new courses.

It must not be assumed that high-school graduates are prepared for an educational experience that calls for new approaches, new reading demands, new skills, and new ways of thinking on their part.

6. In order that the student may get the most out of his college days, provisions must be made to aid him in defining his goals and in overcoming obstacles that impede his progress.

This is fundamentally the purpose of what we call student personnel services, the core of which is student counseling. The criticism is sometimes made, especially by foreign visitors to our campuses that "from orientation to commencement the (American) student is led by the hand"; that "our passion for orderliness results in oversystematization and in not putting the student on his own." We cannot deny there may be some validity to these criticisms. Nor can we claim we have found the true balance between the degree of guidance needed and the freedom and responsibility to be given a student. In any event such a balance could not be expressed in terms of a norm but would have to be decided in terms of each individual student's needs. Here is the key to the whole issue. We must regard each student as a unique personality, a whole personality, whose education is not merely a matter of the intellect but of the man in all his parts.

The freshman is in a new setting, away from home, former ties of friendship broken, uncertain as to the program he should take, bewildered as to campus mores, confronted with new methods of instruction, faced with reading requirements such as he has never met before. His beliefs and system of

values are really challenged for the first time and he is lured by all forms of campus diversions. The student entering an American college *needs* a counselor to aid him to understand himself in relation to his own opportunities and responsibilities.

This may seem like a contradiction of what was said earlier concerning the maturity of the student and his ability to go on his own. It is not at all. This is simply a recognition that students have needs in finding their way into a new educational situation, and those needs must be determined and must become the basis of the personnel services which are provided for the student. This means, therefore, that we have to be able to diagnose their disabilities: disabilities in reading, in fundamental subjects such as mathematics, in taking notes, and in organizing their own thinking. It means, in the second place, that we have to be able to diagnose their interests, and appraise those interests in relation to their abilities. What kind of aptitudes do they have? What do these aptitudes point to? What is called for by way of ability actually to achieve the ends to which these aptitudes point?

In the third place, it means that we have constantly to appraise the relationship between the student's achievement and his ability. We give a great amount of time and attention to the marginal student, the student who isn't quite making the minimum grade-point average required of him to stay in the institution. We almost completely neglect the superior student whose performance should be at a high level, but who is satisfied with a gentleman's grade. The real potential leader and scholar is the student of high competence, whose competence ought to be reflected in a high level of achievement.

I do not mean that we should forsake the marginal student. We accept him as a candidate for higher education, and therefore we must not arbitrarily abandon him or label him a failure. But we must extend our concern to those at the upper level of ability, and see what are the factors that affect their accomplishment. One should not be overly concerned, how-

ever, about "a brain" who doesn't make an A average if there are compensating experiences that contribute to his total development.

All this means, in the last analysis, that we have to aid students periodically to reappraise the goals they have set for themselves. The student who is determined to go into medicine, but who in the course of his first years in college demonstrates his incompetence to achieve mastery of some of those fundamental fields of subject matter that are prerequisite to the effective pursuit of a medical program, or a student who plans to go into engineering but lacks the facility in mathematics that an engineer will need requires the help of a competent and experienced counselor to aid him in reappraising his goals in terms of his particular abilities.

Whether we have been too paternalistic, what the net effect of these personnel services is on the development of personality, and what are the resultant changes (desirable or undesirable) in the attitude and relationships of students to one another and to the faculty and counselors, we do not know. Such fragmentary evidence as we have, in terms of the reduction of student failures, the increased level of academic achievement, and the morale of students, appears to justify the services. There is a broad field here that requires careful study before we can be sure of our ground.

Among the problems in this field with which college administrators are confronted are these: the determination of what services should be provided to meet the needs of students; who should counsel students; how these various campus services can be co-ordinated administratively; and how these services can be tied in effectively with instruction.

I have written about the need for evaluating what we are doing, and how well we are doing what we undertake to do. One of the ways to do this is to receive reports from student counselors. Inevitably they derive from students impressions as to what their reactions are and how they are responding to the educational experiences provided for them. I have a high

opinion of the judgment of students regarding their educational experience, and I have little patience with a faculty member who is unwilling to have (on a confidential basis) an opinion given by students as to the strengths and weaknesses of his own course and his method of teaching.

It should be noted further in this connection that those who deal most intimately with students, particularly the personnel offices, must understand both the cultural complex of the campus and the cultural background of the students. This is not as simple as it sounds. The student who comes from a small community, a village or rural area, is thrown into direct association with a student who comes out of a metropolitan environment and out of a large high school; a student who comes out of a highly religious background and whose whole tradition has been tied up with a church and religion, is thrown directly into contact, and into conflict at times, with a student who characterizes himself as irreligious or agnostic. The student who comes out of a professional home where books, travel, and all of the usual media that contribute to culture have been a part of his life, is thrown into direct association with a student who comes out of another kind of background, the workingman's background, where he has had few of these cultural advantages. Each of them is interested in finding himself in relation to the others; each of them is interested in determining his own status in the new group of which he is a part. Such different cultural backgrounds related to a common cultural complex of a campus, present some serious problems of student adjustment.

I think particularly of the foreign student, the Latin-American student, for example, who comes to our campus from a wholly different cultural background; who is amazed at the freedom which we accord young women on our campuses; who can't understand the rigidity with which we require class attendance and other exercises as a part of the instructional procedure. All these are matters that call for interpretation in order that they may be understood and for continuous critical

examination to be sure that the culture pattern of the campus is sound.

Influences that affect the life and spirit of the campus community must be appraised as they arise and must be given due recognition. One of the most dramatic examples of such influences has been the return of the veterans to the campus in recent years. By and large, the veterans have been a mature group who had little time for or sympathy with the falderal of freshman caps, hazing, and a great many of the usual adolescent manifestations on a campus. One third or more of the veterans were married; that revolutionized the mores of the campuses regarding student marriages. It wasn't very long ago that if students were married on a campus they just automatically severed their connection with the institution. Frequently these veterans have lived in villages and governed themselves in a manner that would do credit to any community.

There are other influences that must be appraised from time to time, e.g., influences that arise from economic crises. I recall vividly the impact of economic conditions in the 1930's on campus life—NYA, student employment, and all of the things that were involved in helping students to adjust themselves to a crisis situation. There are also campus tragedies, such as dormitory fires in which lives are lost; indiscretions of students in their social habits; reckless driving that maims or kills students. Tragedies may bring into focus conditions on the campus that call for a reappraisal and reorganization of campus life. Other potent influences arise from the development of new physical facilities, changes in faculty and administration, or changes in athletic policies. Whatever the nature of the new influences, we must be aware of them and must make the greatest possible constructive use of them.

8. The relationship between the campus community and its contiguous social environment frequently gives rise to critical problems.

This, of course, is the old problem of the town and gown. There are various degrees of relationship between the campus

community and its environment. In some instances the campus community and its immediate environment are identical and constitute a common social setting. This would be largely true of such institutions as Davidson College, Hiram College, Antioch College, the University of Connecticut, the University of New Hampshire, Princeton University, and many others. There is only one set of factors that accounts for the unity or disunity in such a community, and these factors are all inherent in the institution itself.

In other instances, the campus community exists within a wider setting, a setting to which the campus is so intimately related that its life and its interests are woven into the community as a whole. Or it may be that the campus community exists within a wider setting but aloof from it. The campus and the larger social-political community may go on contentedly, each aware of the other but neither materially affected by the other's existence. Then there is that more disturbing kind of relationship where a barrier or an actual antagonism exists between the campus community and its contiguous social setting.

Whatever these relationships may be, the administration must constantly be aware of the role of the college in its larger setting and must take steps to see that the college becomes a positive factor in that setting. This means that it must interpret to the community what the college is doing—the characteristics of its students: where they come from, the kind of activities they engage in; and it must interpret to the college the character of the community.

The college with which I was most recently associated was set in a little village of 2,000. A sharp barrier has existed for years between that college and the community, because in the earlier days when it was a woman's school there was a high fence around the campus, and students were not permitted to go down to this little village without being chaperoned. A student was subject to dismissal if she dated a community boy. The activities on the campus were for the students, and the community was not invited to participate. In those earlier days

the president had in his apartment on the campus a master switch which he pulled at nine o'clock every night, and lights were all out and everybody supposedly was in bed.

Now that was a carry-over of that atmosphere even to 1950. Where barriers of that kind have arisen, special efforts are required to help people to live down the memories of the past, and to accept the institution as an integral part of their community life. This means that the institution should on as many occasions as possible invite the community to participate in campus life, in its cultural activities, athletic events, musical events, lectures, or occasional campus open house.

9. Of special importance these days is the search by both students and scholars for a focus of faith in a world of uncertainties.

All that we have done on our campuses in the way of religious and moral teaching and practice has fallen far short of meeting major student needs. The problem has been, however, that we have tended to compartmentalize religion. We have treated morals as an abstract subject. Oh yes, we have provided opportunities for religious expression for those who already have strong religious commitments; we have provided some opportunities for the expression of altruistic impulses by those who have a deep sense of social responsibility; we have provided religious counselors on the campus or through the churches of the community. But have we built a rational foundation for an abiding faith? Have we aided students to reorient their thinking in the light of these new intellectual experiences which they have, and to relate their religious faith and their religious convictions to the new outlook they have gained through the sciences and the arts?

Is the so-called "return to religion" today a product of college life, or is it a product of society's fear complex? I don't know. But the fact that I raise this question, and the fact that I take a somewhat critical view of what we do, implies that I regard it a matter of major concern. This is not purely an abstract concern, because some of you know that in recent

years I engaged in a study of the religious influences affecting students in a group of liberal arts colleges in the South. When I took what the institutions said they provided by way of religious influences, and checked those against the impact they had on the students and what the students said influenced their religious life and thinking, I found there was very little correlation between the two. And I found there was not the permeation—of the curriculum, the faculty, the total campus life—of that religious spirit and concern which must be at the heart and core of the liberal arts church-related college. I say, therefore, that one of the major concerns we must have in relation to students whom we are attempting to educate is to try to provide a focus of religious thinking, a focus of faith, in a world of uncertainties.

In dealing with these problems in the sphere of student life and activities I probably have not been as specific, either in defining the problems or in proposing solutions, as I have been in the preceding sections. This was by design rather than oversight. It is my conviction that as we formulate clearly stated philosophies, that as we define the purposes of our respective institutions and the relationships of students to the achievement of those purposes, the less important will become some of the troublesome situations that we have growing out of what we construe to be the immaturity of the students on our campus.

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